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MOTIVATION AT WORK

If you have ever worked in an organisation you may have noticed that some people seem driven by their jobs, working hard and almost always performing well, while others seem to be there just for the money. Some people thoroughly enjoy their work, while others seem to hate coming in and are eager to leave as soon as they can. This is a serious management problem of course because if they are "free loaders" who worked little while others work hard, and if they are dissatisfied employees who care little for the job, there will be conflicts and threats to efficiency.

Intuitively we must feel that motivation and satisfaction are strongly related. The more satisfying one's work, the harder one works, although perhaps one of the satisfying things about a job might be that it does not entail too much hard work and stress. Alternatively, perhaps the more motivated one is the more one derives satisfaction. We shall look at major theories and findings starting with the topic of motivation-what drives people to perform or to do better? In this chapter we will study:

- Theories of motivation
- How we might expect to improve work motivation
- The association, if any, between motivation and actual job performance.

The term motivation is derived from the Latin word movere, meaning "to move." Motivation can be broadly defined as the forces acting on or within a person that cause the arousal, direction, and persistence of goal-directed, voluntary effort. Motivation theory is thus concerned with the processes that explain why and how human behavior is activated.

According to one definition (Steers & Porter, 1991), motivation is the force that *energises*, or causes people to act; it *directs* behaviour toward the attainment of specific goals; and *sustains* the effort expended in reaching those goals. This definition implies that motivation is a sustained state. According to Frederick Taylor, workers are motivated by money and material gains, whereas Elton Mayo stressed the role that interpersonal needs play in motivating workers.

Extrinsic and intrinsic motivation: extrinsic motivation refers to those things that are tangible rewards for work and which are not directly involved in the work itself, for instance the rewards of money, holidays, social contact with other workers. Intrinsic motivation is the drive from rewards integral to the job itself, for instance, a sense of worth, mastery of the task, and satisfaction in completing one's work.

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THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Several motivation theories assert that people have certain needs that are important in determining motivation. Needs and wants: several motivation theories are based on the concept of need which refers to those things we cannot function properly without. Eating and drinking are obvious needs. Wants are things we do not need but would dearly like, for instance, a television, car, holidays. The line between needs and wants is hard to draw and is culturally defined.

If increased motivation leads to increased work and increased output, then insight into what the motivators are is obviously going to be useful to industry and commerce. The many theories of work motivation can be linked into three categories:

- Reinforcement theories
- Need theories
- Cognitive (Rational) theories.
- Goal setting theory
- Job Design theories

REINFORCEMENT THEORIES

Reinforcement theory draws on the work of **Skinner** whose theory of *operant conditioning* proposed that behaviour will be shaped by its *consequences*. A consequence that increases the likelihood of the behaviours being repeated is called a *positive reinforcement* (or reward). In the workplace, this could be praise, approval or money. A *negative reinforcement* is something that motivates behaviour by leading to the avoidance of a negative state or condition. For example, if someone has no money and is hungry, they may offer to wash dishes in a restaurant to be given a meal; the meal is a negative reinforcer in that it removes the unpleasant state (hunger).

A *punishment* is some unpleasant consequence of behaviour. The effect of a punishment is to weaken the tendency to perform the behaviour again. Receiving a harsh reprimand for sloppy work could be an example of a punishment.

Reinforcement theory states that reinforcement is a much better motivational technique than punishment because punishment aims to stop unwanted behaviours whereas reinforcement is designed to strengthen the motivation to perform certain desired behaviours. Punishment is generally a poor managerial strategy for a number of reasons:

- Chronic use of punishment can create feelings of hostility and resentment and reduce morale and job-satisfaction
- Punished workers may try to retaliate to "get back" at punitive supervisors
- Punishment tends only to suppress behaviour, not unlearn it

Once a particular behaviour has been conditioned through repeated reinforcement, removal of the reinforcement will, over time, weaken the motivation to perform that behaviour. Eventually, if the reinforcement does not occur again, *extinction*, or elimination of the behaviour will occur.

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The traditional reinforcement schedule is called a continuous reinforcement schedule. Each time the correct behavior is performed it gets reinforced. Then there is what we call an intermittent reinforcement schedule. There are fixed and variable categories.

- The Fixed Interval Schedule is where reinforcement is only given after a certain amount of time has elapsed. Example: Yearly raise .
- The Fixed Ratio Schedule is where the reinforcement is given only after a predetermined number of responses. Example: piecework pay
- The Variable Interval Schedule is where the reinforcement is given after varying amounts of time between each reinforcement. Example: Promotion.
- The Variable Ratio Schedule is where the reinforcement is given after a varying number of correct responses. Example: Team based Bonus.

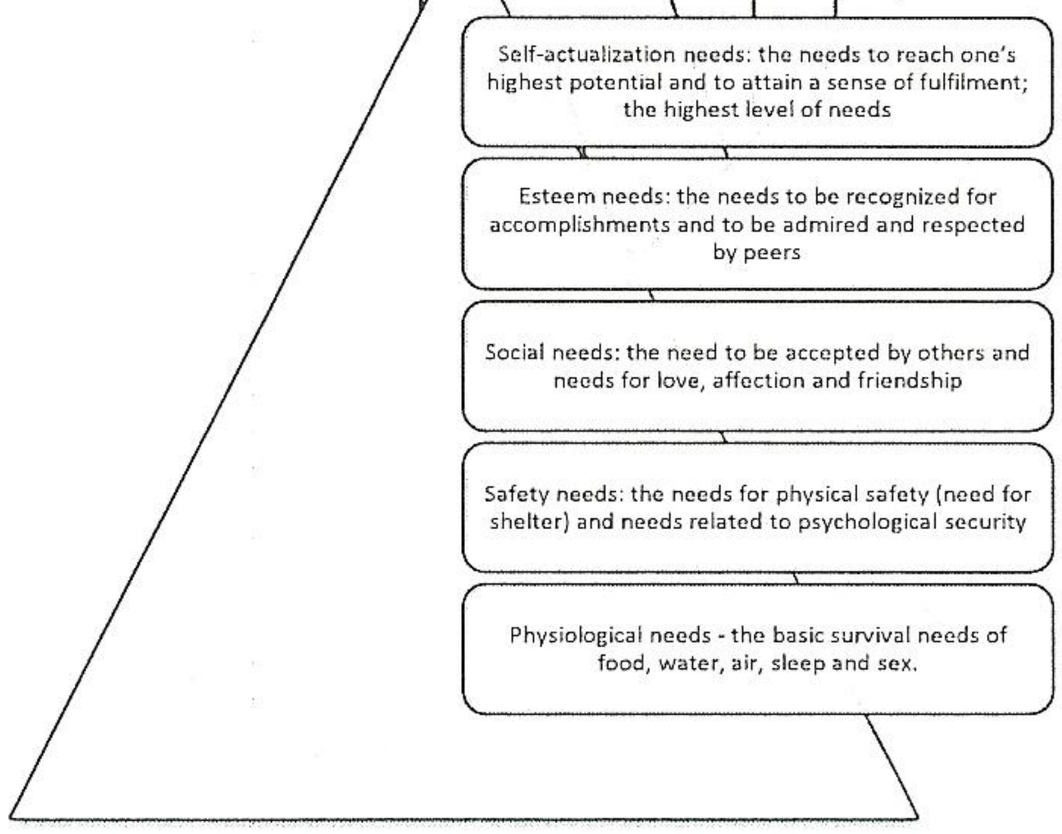
In principle, the reinforcement model is fairly simple and obvious. Unfortunately, the real world does not usually operate in this way. Reinforcement theory ignores the inner state of the individual and concentrates solely on what happens to a person when he or she takes some action. Because it does not concern itself with what initiates behavior, it is not, strictly speaking, a theory of motivation. It does however provide a powerful means of analysis of what controls behavior. Reinforcement theory is usually a good predictor of quality and quantity of work, persistence of effort, absenteeism, tardiness, and accident rates

NEED THEORIES

A number of theories of motivation suggest that people have *needs* which are satisfied by working. These may be tangible such as the need for food or less tangible such as the need for social contact, or respect from others.

MASLOW'S NEEDS HIERACHY THEORY

Maslow (1970) suggested that we have a hierarchy of needs:


Self-actualization needs: the needs to reach one's highest potential and to attain a sense of fulfilment; the highest level of needs
Esteem needs: the needs to be recognized for accomplishments and to be admired and respected by peers
Social needs: the need to be accepted by others and needs for love, affection and friendship
Safety needs: the needs for physical safety (need for shelter) and needs related to psychological security
Physiological needs - the basic survival needs of food, water, air, sleep and sex.

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According to Maslow, the lower order needs must be satisfied in a step-by-step fashion before and individual can move on to higher-order needs. Since higher-order needs are unlikely to be satisfied in the typical worker, there is also a constant upward striving that explains why, for example, even successful, high-level executives continue to exhibit considerable motivation.

Maslow's theory seems to fit the workplace well. However, questions have been raised about the sequence of tiers, whether these are the same for everyone and whether backward as well as forward movement is possible.

There are staff motivation opportunities by motivating each employee through management style, job design, company events, and compensation packages.
Physiological Needs: Provide lunch breaks, rest breaks, and wages that are sufficient to purchase the essentials of life.

- Safety Needs: Provide a safe working environment, freedom from threats, and relative job security.
- Social Needs: Create a feeling of acceptance, belonging, and community by reinforcing team dynamics.
- Esteem Needs: Recognize achievements, assign important projects, and provide status to make employees feel appreciated and valued.
- Self-Actualization: Provide challenging and meaningful work which enables innovation, creativity, and progress according to long-term goals.

Research has not found much support for the theory and application of the theory to motivate workers in the workplace has fallen short of expectations. The main asset of Maslow's theory is its humanistic appeal: it projects the idea that many human needs are bound up with work, not just the need for a pay cheque as earlier theorists proposed.

MCCLELLAND'S ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION THEORY (1961)

One of McClelland's most well known theories is that human motivation, is dominated by three needs. McClelland's theory, sometimes referred to as the three need theory or as the learned needs theory, categorises the needs as follows;

- the need for achievement (N-Ach),
- the need for power (N-Pow) and
- the need for affiliation (N-Affil).

The importance of each of these needs will vary from one person to another. If you can determine the importance of each of these needs to an individual, it will help you decide how to influence that individual.

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McClelland asserted that a person's needs are influenced by their cultural background and life experiences. He also asserted that the majority of these needs can be classified as the needs for affiliation, achievement or power. A person's motivation and effectiveness can be increased through an environment, which provides them with their ideal mix of each of the three needs.

The need for affiliation (N-Affil) - This is the need for friendly relationships and human interaction. There is a need "to feel liked" and "accepted" by others.
A person with a high need for affiliation is likely to be a team player and thrive in a customer services environment. They will perform best in a co-operative environment.
McClelland said that a strong need for affiliation will interfere with a manager's objectivity. The "need to be liked" will affect a manager's decisions, prompting them to make decisions to increase their popularity rather than furthering the interests of the organisation.

The need for power (N-Pow) - This is the need to lead others and make an impact. This need can exhibit itself in two ways. The first which is the need for personal power may be viewed as undesirable as the person simply needs to feel that they have "power over others". They don't have to be effective or further the objectives of their employer.
The second type of "need for power" is the need for institutional power. People with the need for institutional power; want to direct the efforts of their team, to further the objectives of their organisation.

The need for achievement (N-Ach) - This is the need to achieve, excel and succeed. A person with this type of need, will set goals that are challenging but realistic. The goals have to be challenging so that the person can feel a sense of achievement. However the goals also have to be realistic as the person believes that when a goal is unrealistic, its achievement is dependant on chance rather than personal skill or contribution. This type of person prefers to work alone or with other high achievers. They do not need praise or recognition, achievement of the task is their reward.

A person with a "need for achievement" needs regular job-related feedback so that they can review their progress and achievement. Feedback includes advancement in the person's position in the organisation. Salary scale will also be viewed as measure of progress. The amount of salary is not about increasing wealth for a person with a high need for achievement. Instead this type of person is focusing on how their level of salary symbolises their progress and achievement.

McClelland believed that people with a strong need for achievement, make the best leaders for a variety of reasons including setting goals, reviewing progress and continuously looking at how things can be done better. However they may "expect too much" from their team as they believe that others have the same "need for achievement" which is often not the case.

EVALUATION OF NEEDS THEORIES

Needs theories have an spontaneous appeal, probably because we like to think that work satisfies an inner need other than greed or love of money, and also because they view people as individuals and not simply "workers". These theories have been instrumental in setting up useful intervention strategies, matching individuals' jobs to fulfilling their individual needs.

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The idea of fitting the job to the person, rather than the person to the job has far-reaching implications for job design and evaluation. This concept underpins much of the current thinking in Human Resource planning; whether it is found to be possible to implement is still to be seen.

Although need theories have received a great deal of attention from professionals in psychology, business and other areas, they have not led to any type of useful application or strategy for improving work motivation (Miner, 1983). They seem to be good *descriptive* models of needs, but do not make any important *predictions* about behaviour (Hunter, 1976).

ALDERFER'S ERG THEORY (1972)

Clayton Alderfer extended and simplified **Maslow's Hierarchy** into a shorter set of three needs: Existence, Relatedness and Growth (hence 'ERG'). Unlike Maslow, he did not see these as being a hierarchy, but being more of a continuum. In Alderfer's model, sex does not need to be in the bottom category as it is in Maslow's model, since it is not crucial to (the individual's) existence. So by moving sex, this theory does not predict that people have to have sex before they can think about going to school, like Maslow's theory does.

Alderfer believed that as you start satisfying higher needs, they become more intense (e.g., the power you get the more you want power), like an addiction.

Existence - At the lowest level is the need to stay alive and safe, now and in the foreseeable future. When we have satisfied existence needs, we feel safe and physically comfortable. This includes Maslow's Physiological and Safety needs.

Relatedness - At the next level, once we are safe and secure, we consider our social needs. We are now interested in relationships with other people and what they think of us. When we are related, we feel a sense of identity and position within our immediate society. This encompasses Maslow's Love/belonging and Esteem needs.

Growth - At the highest level, we seek to grow, be creative for ourselves and for our environment. When we are successfully growing, we feel a sense of wholeness, achievement and fulfilment. This covers Maslow's Self-actualization and Transcendence.

COGNITIVE THEORIES

These are theories that recognise the worker as a rational, thinking being who will weigh up the pros and cons of the work situation in order to decide where individual rewards and gratifications lie, putting motivation on an individual basis. These are consistent with the trend towards understanding of the cognitive processes that affect work behaviour.

EQUITY THEORY

Equity theory states that workers are motivated by a desire to be treated *equitably* or fairly. If workers perceive that they are being treated fairly, their motivation to work will be maintained and steady performance can be expected. If, on the other hand, they feel that there is inequitable treatment, their motivation will be channelled into some strategy that will try to reduce the inequity.

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The theory was proposed by Adams and is based on *Social Exchange theory*, where people weigh up the costs of an action against the benefits it will confer, in order to estimate the overall reward.

In the workplace, the costs (tiredness, inconvenience, lack of free time etc) are weighed against the benefits (salary, socialisation etc). Adams suggests that employees have to feel that the exchange is "fair" in order to feel motivated to produce a good work performance.

Equity theory has become increasingly popular. According to the theory, the worker brings *inputs* to the job, such as experience, education and qualifications, energy and effort, and expects to receive *outcomes* such as pay, fringe benefits, recognition, and interesting and challenging work each in equivalent proportions. In order to decide whether the situation is equitable, workers make social comparisons between their own input-outcome ratios and those of *comparison others* who can be co-workers or workers with a similar job. It must be stressed that the equity theory is based on the workers' *perceptions* of equity-inequity.

According to the theory, lack of motivation is caused by two types of perceived inequity. *Underpayment* inequity results when the workers feel that they are receiving fewer outcomes from the job in relation to inputs. For example, imagine that you have been in a job for over a year. A new employee has just been hired to do the same type of job. The person is about your age and has the same background and level of education. However, your new co-worker has much less experience than you. Now imagine how you feel when you find out that this new worker is being paid £1.50 per hour more than you are. Equity theory predicts that you would experience underpayment inequity and would be motivated to try and balance the situation by doing one of the following:

- *Increasing outcomes:* you would confront your boss and ask for a raise, or find some other way to get greater outcomes, perhaps even through padding your expense account or taking home office supplies
- *decreasing inputs:* you might decide that you need to limit your work production or quality of work commensurate with your "poor" pay
- *Changing the comparison other:* if you find out the new employee is actually the boss' daughter, she is clearly not a similar comparison other.
- *Leaving the situation:* you might decide that the situation is so inequitable that you are no longer motivated to work there

Now, imagine that you are on the receiving end of that extra £1.50 per hour. In other words, compared with your comparison others, you are receiving greater outcomes from your average level inputs. This is referred to as *overpayment* inequity, which also creates an imbalance. In this case, equity theory predicts that you might do one of the following:

- *Increasing inputs:* you might work harder to try to even up the input-outcome ratio
- *Changing comparison others:* an overpaid worker might change comparison others to persons of higher work status or ability. For example: "Obviously my boss sees my potential. I am paid more because she is grooming me for a managerial position."
- *Distorting the situation* a distortion of the perception of inputs or outcomes might occur. For example, "My work is of a higher quality and therefore deserves more pay than the work of others"

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It is this last outcome, the possibility of psychological distortions of the situation that weakens the predictive ability of this very rational theory of motivation. Equity theory has difficulty predicting behaviour when people behave irrationally, as they sometime do.

Although Equity theory has been researched a great deal, most of the early studies have been laboratory based. A more recent field study was undertaken of attitudes of 2000 workers in the retail industry, where new employees were taken on at a lower pay-scale. The lower-paid workers, who were recently employed, perceived the inequity in pay, because they compared themselves with the higher paid workers who were doing the same kind of job. The higher paid workers, however, did not perceive the inequity (overpayment of themselves); because they were drawing comparisons to the pay structure before the two-tier system was introduced. This study confirmed the predictions of Equity theory in both underpayment and overpayment situations. These results would seem to indicate that a two-tier pay structure would reduce motivation among the workforce.

Despite this support from studies, very little application of Equity theory in the workplace has ensued. Rational model of motivation assume that individuals are constantly aware of important elements in their work environment and that motivation is determined by a conscious processing of the information received. This is unfortunately not always the case and often even rational people behave in irrational ways given particular situations. Other variables such as individuals' sensitivity to inequity, may need identification and further research before useful applications can be made.

** Include Vroom's Expectancy theory from the Textbook.

GOAL-SETTING THEORY

Goal setting theory is "probably the most consistently supported theory in work and organisational psychology" (Arnold, 1998) and emphasises the role of specific, challenging performance goals and workers' commitment to these goals as key determinants of motivation. Typically it is associated with Locke (1968) although theories concerning the establishing of goals have been around for some time. Goal-setting techniques have also been used in non-work settings to motivate people to lose weight, exercise regularly and to study.

In 1990 Locke and Latham were able to claim the following well supported principles:

- **Challenging goals** produce higher performance than easy ones
- **Specific goals** are more effective than general ones
- **Knowledge of results** is essential – so goals need to be *quantifiable* and there needs to be *feedback*.
- **Participation** in the goal setting process is essential to improving motivation and performance.

Laboratory and field research support goal-setting as a motivator. A field experiment was set up involving 209 engineers, divided into three experimental and three control groups. All experimental groups were set goals, whereas the control groups had no set goals. The groups were studied over a period of nine months. The "goals" groups were superior to the "no goals" group in terms of cost control, quality control and intrinsic satisfaction.

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Goal-setting theory has generated a great deal of research. Unfortunately, much of this research has been conducted using college students who simulate work behaviour in a laboratory setting. More recent research, however, has demonstrated the effectiveness of goal-setting techniques in the field. Some research has focused on trying to find out why it so effective as a motivating technique. One study found that the setting of specific, challenging goals may stimulate high quality planning on the part of the workers. This "planning quality" then contributes to better performance in achieving goals. Feedback accompanying goal attainment may also enhance a worker's job performance and ability to become more innovative and creative on the job through a trail-and-error learning process. Since goal-setting is a relatively simple motivational strategy, it has become increasingly popular.

This theory states that for employees to be motivated, goals must be clear, specific, attainable and whenever possible, quantified. General goals, such as urging employees to do their best or to work as quickly as possible, are not as effective as defined, measurable goals. In addition, goal setting programs may emphasize taking a large, challenging goal and breaking it down into a series of smaller, more easily attained goals. Difficult or challenging goals will also result in greater levels of motivation, if the goals have been accepted by the workers (Locke, Shaw & Latham, 1981).

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09

IMPROVING MOTIVATION

Each of the theories of motivation has obvious implications for improving motivation.

CLAY HAMNER: REINFORCEMENT THEORY AND CONTINGENT MANAGEMENT

One of the main criticisms of Skinner's theory as applied to the workplace is that it does not explain *how* behaviour occurs originally, in order for it to be reinforced. Hamner maintains that the behaviour is learned by first-hand observation; this enables the behaviour to be reproduced and subsequently rewarded.

Undesirable behaviours may be weakened by either punishment or by extinction. Punishment may take the form of severe reprimand or loss of pay. Principles of extinction are the non-rewarding or ignoring of bad behaviours. In the workplace, this could take the form of not being paid for substandard work.

Using reinforcement theory, Hamner suggests a number of managerial actions.

- Don't reward everyone the same; we need to feel different and need to have an achievable goal
- Remember that a manager's behaviour either reinforces or does not reinforce worker's behaviours. Managers are never "neutral".
- Tell your workforce what will be reinforced.
- Tell them what they are doing right or wrong. In other words, give feedback.
- Don't punish in front of others. This involves loss of "face" for the worker, which builds resentment and is demotivating.
- Make the consequences of worker's actions equal the behaviour

To keep workers happy, **Herzberg** suggested, job dissatisfaction must be eliminated by providing basic hygiene factors. They must be compensated appropriately, treated well and provided with job security. Furnishing the basic hygienes will only prevent dissatisfaction, not necessarily motivate workers. To get workers to put in extra effort, motivators must be present. The work must be important, giving workers a sense of responsibility and should provide chances for upward mobility.

If one applies **equity theory** to improving motivation it becomes important to ensure that all employees perceive equity by making comparisons clear and rationalising these. Also ensure that employees do not make inappropriate comparisons within and between organisations. This will involve clear job descriptions and a degree of transparency in organisational structure.

Include point from reward system handout

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61

MOTIVATION AND PERFORMANCE

A review of the theories of motivation leads on naturally to a consideration of the link between motivation and performance.

PERFORMANCE RELATED PAY

Despite the many alternative theoretical models, pay or salary is the most common method of rewarding employees and the behavioural approach remains important. To make the link between performance and pay more explicitly and therefore to make pay more motivating and reinforcing, performance-related-pay (PRP) schemes are often encouraged. PRP can reflect an individual's, a team's or a company's performance.

Team PRP encourages team members to support lower performers and individuals can see the results of their efforts far more than with company performance schemes. On the downside, consistently slow individuals may be bullied or "encouraged" to leave. Stress levels of struggling team members may be high and inter-team rivalry may develop.

With *individual PRP*, it is easy to see the link between individual effort and reward, which motivates individuals to achieve objectives. It does, however, run the risk of dispiriting the individual if the scheme is poorly designed and does not encourage teamwork.

Kohn (1993) challenges the effectiveness of PRP as follows:

- Pay is a dubious motivator
- Financial rewards are a short-term motivator.
- Financial rewards alter behaviour but not the underlying attitudes or commitment.
- The more cognitively difficult a job is, the more tenuous the link to PRP
- PRP discourages risk taking

Kohn suggests that companies should concentrate on the *intrinsic* motivational factors such as the job itself.

JOB DESIGN THEORIES:

According to these theories if the job is well designed and results in satisfying needs, then that will lead to good motivation.

HERZBERG'S "TWO FACTOR THEORY"

Herzberg's "two factor theory" maintains that the motivation to work comes from the job itself rather than external incentives like pay and conditions. Herzberg, a psychology professor in Ohio, carried out his study with some 200 engineers and accountants, and confirmed the findings by a review of the results of sixteen other studies reported from the USA and Britain, involving some 11,000 employees. The interviewees in his study were asked to describe work situations in which they "felt exceptionally happy" and those that made them "feel exceptionally bad.

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In his findings Herzberg split his factors of motivation into two categories called Hygiene factors and Motivation factors. The Hygiene factors can de-motivate or cause dissatisfaction if they are not present, but do not very often create satisfaction when they are present; however, Motivation factors do motivate or create satisfaction and are rarely the cause of dissatisfaction. The two types of factors may be listed as follows in order of importance:

HYGIENE FACTORS (LEADING TO DISSATISFACTION):	MOTIVATORS (LEADING TO SATISFACTION):
Company Policy	Achievement
Supervision	Recognition
Relationship with Boss	The work itself
Work Conditions	Responsibility
Salary	Advancement
Relationship with Peers	Growth

The dissatisfiers are hygiene factors in the sense that they are maintenance factors required to avoid dissatisfaction and stop workers from being unhappy, but do not create satisfaction in themselves. They can be avoided by using 'hygienic' methods to prevent them.

Both lists contain factors that lead to motivation, but to a differing extent because they fulfil different needs. The Hygiene factors have an end which once fulfilled then cease to be motivating factors while the Motivation factors are much more open-ended and this is why they continue to motivate.

Herzberg also developed the concept that there are two distinct human needs:

1) Physiological needs: avoiding unpleasantness or discomfort and may be fulfilled via money to buy food and shelter etc.
2) Psychological needs: the need for personal development fulfilled by activities which cause one to grow.

It is important to understand that the two types of factors are not mutually exclusive and that management must try to fulfil both types of need for an employee to be truly satisfied with their job. Once the Hygiene factors have been satisfied providing more of them will not create further motivation but not satisfying them may cause de-motivation; unlike the Motivation factors where management may not fulfil all of them but the workers may still feel motivated. Major companies have recognised this situation when designing their methods of reward and recognition.

JOB CHARACTERISTICS MODEL

The job characteristics model, designed by Hackman and Oldham, is based on the idea that the task itself is key to employee motivation. Specifically, a boring and monotonous job stifles motivation to perform well, whereas a challenging job enhances motivation.

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63

It states that there are five core job characteristics (skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback) which impact three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of the actual results). They maintained that job satisfaction, motivation, work quality and performance are influenced by five core job dimensions and they developed a Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) to measure the variables and produce a Motivating Potential Score (MPS), which can be used as an index of how likely a job is to affect an employee's attitudes and behaviors.

The outcome of jobs with high MPS will be high *quality work performance* and high *worker satisfaction* and *low absenteeism and turnover rates*. Hackman and Oldham's job characteristics theory proposes that high motivation is related to experiencing three psychological states whilst working:

1. Meaningfulness of work - That labour has meaning to you, something that you can relate to, and does not occur just as a set of movements to be repeated. This is fundamental to intrinsic motivation, i.e. that work is motivating in an of itself (as opposed to motivating only as a means to an end).

2. Responsibility - That you have been given the opportunity to be a success or failure at your job because sufficient freedom of action has given you. This would include the ability to make changes and incorporate the learning you gain whilst doing the job.

3. Knowledge of outcomes - This is important for two reasons. Firstly to provide the person knowledge on how successful their work has been, which in turn enables them to learn from mistakes. The second is to connect them emotionally to the customer of their outputs, thus giving further purpose to the work (e.g. I may only work on a production line, but I know that the food supplies I produce are used to help people in disaster areas, saving many lives).

A criticism of the model is that it does not work well for people who are low in growth-need and for whom Task Significance or Autonomy would not be important characteristics of a work situation.

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64

ASSIGNMENT # 8

Don't try this at home

People will try anything to get workers to work harder. Those from the transhumanist movement believe that workers should be given 'smart drugs', known as 'motivationenhancers'.

(a) Describe what psychologists have discovered about motivation to work. [8]

(b) Evaluate what psychologists have discovered about motivation to work. [10]

(c) Using your psychological knowledge, suggest how the management of a company could increase performance through motivation. [6]

See:
Novemeber 2002, November 2004, May 2006, November 2008, May 2010/31, November 2010/31, November 2010/32